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ISADOR LUBIN, Commissioner

LABOR INFORMATION BULLETIN

NOVEMBER 1936

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BORIS STERN, Editor

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HELPING WORKERS COLLECT THEIR UNPAID WAGES

BY
HENRY W. LEHMANN
U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

Millions of dollars of wages remain unpaid to workers each year. For the great number of wage earners dependent upon their weekly pay envelope for the support of their families, these lost wages mean unnecessary hardship and distress, if not actual want and privation.

Although complete statistics on the amount of unpaid wages due employees are not available, the records of legal aid societies, small claims courts, and State labor commissions indicate that in many instances employees receive these unpaid wages only after bringing legal action or threatening to do so. Some indication of the seriousness of the problem may be obtained from the fact that more than 20 percent of the 300,000 cases handled by legal aid societies over the 10-year period, 1924 to 1933, involved wage claims. In 1932 the Commissioner of Labor and Statistics of California settled more than 16,000 cases and collected $775,000 in unpaid wages for workers in that State. In 1934 he reported wage collections of about $1,000,000 for the benefit of approximately 60,000 employees.

In spite of the fact that employers are legally obligated to pay their workers for services rendered, some employers through failures, some by going out of business, others by hurriedly moving to other localities or by other devices, manage to avoid paying workers the wages due them. These workers are compelled to seek restitution through the ordinary legal procedure of the courts. In this they are often helped by legal aid societies where they exist.

The expense and delay of court procedure often result in great hardship to the wage earner. In the first place, litigation costs money. Court fees of all kinds must be paid. Witnesses must be compensated for the time they spend in testifying. Moreover, the average wage earner cannot adequately handle his case in court without the aid of legal counsel, and in most cases he can no more afford to pay an attorney than he can afford to pay court costs or witness fees. Even when he can obtain an attorney upon a contingent-fee basis, the amount of the claim is frequently so small that the fees for services are entirely out of proportion and often exceed the amount recovered. The few dollars withheld from his weekly earnings are very important to the wage earner, but when he balances this loss against the costs of bringing civil action in court, he frequently gives up in despair.

Court procedure is generally slow. Dockets, especially in large cities where most wage earners live, are usually crowded. It often takes weeks or months before a particular case is reached for trial. But the average wage earner cannot wait that long for his pay envelope: he needs his earnings immediately to provide the necessaries of life for his family. Even a short delay causes hardship. To give an employee his wages after a lapse of weeks and often months, which it takes to dispose of cases in the courts, becomes, in fact, a denial of justice.

EXISTING STATE LEGISLATION

The problem of collecting unpaid wages was recognized at an early date by State legislatures. Some States established standards governing the regularity and frequency of wage payments. These laws, where they

exist, generally require payment of wages on regular pay days and at sufficiently frequent intervals so that workers are not forced into debt in order to maintain their families between pay days. Many States also created legal machinery to aid employees in their task of collecting unpaid wages.

Massachusetts was the first to pass legislation affecting the payment of wages. In 1879 the legislature enacted a statute requiring certain employers of labor to pay wages weekly. Since then the law has been strengthened and is now applicable to most employers. Moreover, wages must now be paid in full on each regular pay day. Other States have enacted somewhat similar legislation. At the present time almost every State attempts to regulate in some way the payment of wages and to facilitate the employee's task of collecting back wages. Some State laws also stipulate the conditions under which wages must be paid in cases of discharge, resignation, or strike. In all States the purpose of the legislation is to compel the prompt payment of wages. In many States delinquent employers are subject to fines enforceable in a civil action or through criminal prosecution.

The Wisconsin law penalizes employers for withholding wages by adding 10 percent of the amount due to the employee's wage if it is not paid within 3 days after the date due. If the delay in payment is from 3 to 10 days, the penalty is increased to 20 percent. It is gradually increased up to 50 percent if the wages are not paid within 30 days. The maximum penalty imposed upon the employer is set at $50 and the wage earner can obtain the money by bringing a civil action. The Arkansas law provides as a penalty for failure to pay the wages of a discharged employee on the day of such dismissal that his wages shall continue at the same rate from the date of the discharge until paid. Such wages cannot, however, be continued for more than 60 days. In some States the employer is required to pay a reasonable fee for the worker's attorney in addition to the wages due.

NEED FOR EFFECTIVE AND SPEEDY MACHINERY

Penalties of themselves do not, however, solve the difficulties of court procedure. They do not meet the problems caused by the delay and the expense incurred in going to court. To overcome these difficulties, several States have created special administrative machinery to make it less necessary for workers to take their cases to court. In several States the law empowers the commissioner of labor to take assignments of wage claims and bring action to recover the unpaid wages. The California Commissioner of Labor and Statistics has the power to serve subpoenas, to compel attendance of witnesses and production of books and records, and to examine witnesses under oath. Hearings are held to determine the validity of the wage claim. If the claim is valid and the employer refuses to pay, the commissioner may bring civil action in the courts to collect the wages.

This procedure is used in several States in which the commissioner of labor is charged with the enforcement of wage-collection laws. As a result, the great majority of cases are settled without going to court. In those instances where court action is necessary the wage earner is spared the need of obtaining a lawyer, inasmuch as the commissioner is authorized to handle such cases in the courts.

Recognizing the need for adequate laws to facilitate the payment and collection of wages in all States of the Union, the Secretary of Labor appointed a committee of State labor commissioners in 1935 to draft a bill to serve as a model for legislative action by the various States. This model incorporates the best features of existing State laws and of administrative experience, and was approved by the International Association of Governmental Labor Officials at its annual meeting in Topeka, Kan., in September 1936.*

The model bill requires all employers to pay employees their wages in full at least twice a month. Discharged employees are to be paid within 24 hours and those who resign, within 72 hours of their resignation.

** Free copies of the model bill may be obtained from the Division of Labor Standards, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.*

Employees on strike are to be paid the wages due them on the next regular pay day.

The enforcement of these provisions is placed in the hands of the State labor commissioner or an equivalent administrative official. The official in charge is given the power to hold hearings and take testimony. It has been the experience of State labor commissioners in charge of administering wage-payment laws that most wage claims are settled at this point. This gives the labor commissioner many advantages in handling wage claims as compared with court procedure.

The labor commissioner is not bound by the technical rules of procedure and evidence which cause so much delay in litigation. Through the method of informal hearings the commissioner can speedily determine the facts of the case and can usually persuade the contestants to settle upon the basis of his findings.

However, there are claims, the validity of which must be decided by the courts if the parties cannot reach an agreement. To aid the worker who is thus compelled to go to court, the model law permits the commissioner to take assignments of the worker's claim and to sue the employer on his behalf, thus relieving the worker from the necessity of hiring a lawyer.

It is generally believed that if labor commissioners are granted the power to enforce wage-payment laws in accordance with the provisions of the model bill, wage earners will get their unpaid wages without undue delay and will thus be accorded the legal protection to which they are entitled.

THE CONSUMERS' PROTECTION LABEL

A GUARANTEE FOR FAIR LABOR STANDARDS

BERTHA M. NIENBURG, ASSISTANT DIRECTOR
WOMEN'S BUREAU, U. S. DEPT. OF LABOR

This fall woman shoppers will find stitched to the lining of coats and suits a white satin label with blue letters which reads: "CONSUMERS' PROTECTION LABEL, Manufactured under Fair Labor Standards." A similar label with black lettering will be found in hats.

These labels represent a pioneer attempt by the coat and suit and millinery industries to maintain fair-trade practices and decent labor standards through cooperation among manufacturers, workers, and consumers*

American women spend from a billion and a half to two billion dollars annually for their own and their children's suits, coats, dresses, hats, and other apparel. The making of these articles provides employment to approximately 300,000 male and female workers. Though chiefly interested in obtaining fair value for the money paid, woman shoppers are now offered the additional assurance that the articles they purchase have been made under fair working conditions. In other words, for the first time in the history of the women's apparel industry the woman purchaser is enabled to serve her family interest intelligently and at the same time also serve the collective interests of workers and industry.

THE CONSUMERS' PROTECTION LABEL

Over four-fifths of the employers and employees in the two branches of the apparel industry -- the coat and suit, and millinery -- have banded together and are inviting the woman purchaser to support

** The story of the Consumers' Protection Label is told in Bulletin No. 146 of the Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor: "A Policy Insuring Value to the Woman Buyer and a Livelihood to Apparel Makers."*

them in their cooperative effort to raise labor standards and working conditions in their industries. In the coat and suit industry representatives of the employees' organizations, trade associations, inside manufacturers, jobbers, and submanufacturers formed the National Coat and Suit Recovery Board. The membership of this board represents nine-tenths of the industry -- over 2,200 firms and over 50,000 employees. In the millinery industry a governing board was established by the employees' union and the employers' trade associations. This board, the Millinery Stabilization Commission, acts for four-fifths of the millinery industry, 1,100 firms and 25,000 employees being represented on it.

The Consumers' Protection Label is attached by employees to all articles made by firms complying with the labor and trade agreements set up under these two boards. In the coat and suit industry a white satin label with blue letters is attached to the lining of the following types of apparel: Women's, misses', children's, and infants' coats, wraps, suits, ensembles, jackets, skirts, capes, knickers, and riding habits, in whole or in part of wool, silk, velvet, plush, or purchased knitted material. In the millinery industry a similar black-lettered label is used in women's or children's hats made of felt, straw, or cloth.

The majority of the members of these industries have voluntarily set up methods for policing the industry and enforcing the standards agreed upon.

The Consumers' Protection Label thus offers a guarantee to the consumer that the article bearing it represents better values for the consumer, more stabilized production and fair-trade practices for the manufacturers, and good labor conditions for the workers, including shorter hours of work, steadier employment, and wages adjusted through collective bargaining. It is a definite assurance that no "sweatshop" conditions have entered into the making of the garment.

NEED FOR PROTECTION

The garment industries are made up of many small competing factories and shops owned largely by individual manufacturers. In an effort to obtain contracts and maintain themselves in business these small manufacturers are often compelled to accept extremely low prices which they can make profitable only by forcing their employees to work under sweatshop conditions. In the past these small shops have been the worst offenders against decent wages and working conditions. Everyone is now familiar with the long hours, low wages, and unhealthful surroundings under which these sweatshops have been exploiting their workers. At the same time these small shops made it impossible for the larger manufacturers to operate their factories under proper labor standards.

The cooperative effort of the industry through the Consumers' Protection Label is an attempt to do away permanently with these sweatshop conditions. The standards of wages and hours of work accepted by the Coat and Suit Recovery Board and the Millinery Stabilization Commission are those previously incorporated in the collective agreements between the unions of workers and the associations of employers of these two industries.

SAMPLES OF LABOR STANDARDS

In metropolitan New York the collective agreement for the coat and suit industry stipulates the following conditions of work:

Cash wages shall be paid regularly each week. A minimum-wage

scale is set up for each craft for workers paid by the week. Workers in crafts paid by the piece are guaranteed a minimum hourly rate. The week's work consists of 35 hours in the first 5 days of the week, a regulation which is intended to spread the work over more weeks in the year. When an employer cannot provide full-time work to all his employees, the work is to be equally divided among all who are competent to do the work. During the life of the agreement there is to be no strike or lockout. All disagreements are to be settled by an impartial chairman approved by all parties.

In the millinery trade in New York weekly hours are fixed at 35, with the understanding that overtime cannot be worked unless all workers in the crafts affected are employed full time and unless all available seats and benches are occupied. Sanitary working conditions are required. A minimum scale of wages is set up for each craft, a scale placed high enough to make up for some of the irregularity of employment. A higher scale is used as a basis for fixing piece rates for the average good worker. The piece-work prices are settled by employee and employer price committees. If a satisfactory agreement, acceptable to both parties, cannot be reached in this manner, the matter is submitted to millinery adjustment boards made up of representatives of employees and employers and an impartial chairman. The decisions of these boards are final and binding upon the parties to the dispute.

The success or failure of the efforts of these two industries to maintain decent labor standards depends to a marked extent upon the support which woman purchasers will give them in buying only labeled garments.

Support of the label does not mean that woman purchasers must pay higher prices. With an overwhelming majority of the employers and employees in these two industries united behind the label, a wide range of labeled merchandise, from the lowest to the highest price level, is available. A woman can support this movement by buying a labeled winter coat for $20 with the same assurance that it is made under sanitary conditions and at standard rates of pay as when she buys a $150 coat with the label attached.

It is believed that insistence on labeled garments will force the small percentage of manufacturers or contractors who have been unwilling to cooperate, to join in this forward movement as a business necessity. If woman purchasers do not show a clear demand for labeled garments, the uncooperating minority in the industry may be able, by cutting their labor costs, to undercut the prices of coats, suits, and hats and bring back the demoralization that has so often affected these industries and workers.

Several large national women's organizations have become interested in the use of the Consumers' Protection Label. These organizations believe that this experiment in cooperative activity can lead the way to assuring women of good merchandise under adequate wage scales and excellent working conditions.

In urging the widest consumer support of the Consumers' Protection Label, Miss Mary Anderson, Director of the Women's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, has said, "I have watched since the inception the efforts of this branch of the needlework industry to solve its problems by agreement between manufacturers and workers and consumers, and feel that it is a laboratory which other industries may well use as a model."

LABOR STANDARDS IN DOMESTIC WATER TRANSPORTATION

EDWIN M. FITCH AND JAMES W. O'BRIEN
OFFICE OF THE FEDERAL COORDINATOR OF TRANSPORTATION

The present state of labor relations in the maritime industry has given added significance to a report on "Hours, Wages and Working Conditions in Domestic Water Transportation", which has just been made public by Joseph B. Eastman, formerly Federal Coordinator of Transportation. The report is one of a series on labor standards in the various branches of the transportation industry made by the Coordinator's office under the Emergency Transportation Act of 1933, which expired in June 1936.

Labor standards in water transportation are greatly influenced by variations in the type of ships and in the character of operations. Marked contrasts exist between transportation on the Great Lakes and in the offshore trades. Inland river transportation differs from both. Conditions on tanker and bulk-cargo carriers differ greatly from those on freight and passenger ships. On the Pacific coast the steam schooners, engaged largely in the transportation of lumber, have many peculiar characteristics not found in other trades.

The Industry. There are about 10,000 vessels of approximately 8,500,000 gross tons engaged in domestic water operations. This number does not include yachts, fishing boats, barges, and miscellaneous small craft. Slightly less than one-fourth of the total tonnage of domestic water carriers is operated on the Great Lakes. Most of the remainder is engaged in coastwise and intercoastal service.

It is estimated that in 1934 there were approximately 300,000 employees, including both ship and shore personnel, engaged in interstate and foreign water transportation. Of these, approximately 114,000 were ship personnel employed on vessels, 110,000 were longshoremen, and the remainder were other shore employees.

SHIP PERSONNEL

The duties and conditions of work of a large part of ship personnel bear little resemblance to those of persons engaged in land occupations. Hours of work and methods of supervision, as well as the tasks and responsibilities, make seamen a unique class of workers. The dangers incident to navigation and the discipline required on board ship have produced a near-military relationship between licensed officers and unlicensed personnel which has an important bearing on labor relations.

Hours of Work. The hours of work of seamen, particularly of those who stand watch, are radically different from the hours worked by land employees. A ship at sea must have a crew on duty sufficient at all times for safe navigation. This is accomplished by means of the watch system.

Employment data collected by the Federal Coordinator of Transportation indicate that in June 1933 a basic 8-hour day prevailed for the majority of seamen, both licensed and unlicensed, except on the Great Lakes. In the Pacific coastwise and Alaska service no seamen were reported as scheduled for more than 8 hours per day. In the Atlantic coastwise trade more than four-fifths of the licensed officers and more than three-quarters of the unlicensed personnel on common-carrier vessels worked on an 8-hour basis. In the Atlantic-Gulf coastwise trade the entire engine-room personnel was employed on an 8-hour basis, but one-third of the deck crew and more than one-half of the steward's department personnel were working on a 12-hour schedule. In the intercoastal trade more than one-fourth of the employees in the deck department also worked on a 12-hour schedule. On the Great Lakes all the officers and more than one-third of the employees in the deck and

TYPICAL INTERCOASTAL PASSENGER AND FREIGHT LINER

steward's departments were likewise scheduled on a 12-hour per day basis.

Since 1933 there has been a considerable reduction in the number of workers employed on a 12-hour basis. Union agreements, which now cover a larger number of seamen than in 1933, almost without exception provide for three watches for both the deck and engine departments. On the Great Lakes members of the Lake Carriers' Association voluntarily established the 3-watch system on the larger vessels in 1934.

The 1936 amendment to the LaFollette Seamen's Act requires a 3-watch system on most vessels engaged in transporting passengers and goods. As a result, watch officers and seamen in the engine and deck departments are scheduled for two 4-hour stretches of duty with 8 hours of rest in between. Each man thus regularly works 8 hours within each 24, except when longer hours are necessary in the judgment of the master for maneuvering the ship or for work essential to the safety of the ship, passengers, crew, or cargo.

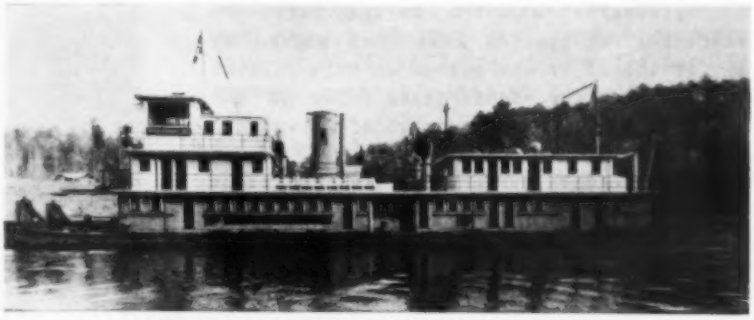
Scheduled hours, however, do not disclose actual hours worked even by deck and engine-room personnel. Licensed officers in particular may be on duty for hours greatly in excess of those determined by the 3-watch system. Unlicensed members of the crew also are required to work overtime, particularly on entering and leaving port, when preparations must be made for the unloading and loading of cargo.

Steward's department employees generally work on a different basis, since their duties are more akin to those of hotel and restaurant employees. Their hours must conform to the requirements of the passengers and crew rather than to a fixed schedule.

There is abundant evidence available to indicate that a considerable amount of overtime is still required aboard ship. The law permits exceptions to the 8-hour limitation. Furthermore, the limitation does not apply to the steward's department, where most of the overtime normally occurs. The most promising approach to the problem of overtime lies in the direction of extra payment for overtime work. Such payment will provide an incentive to eliminate overtime so far as this may prove feasible, and at the same time will prevent complaints of unfairness on the part of the workers.

Rates of Pay. In considering wages paid to ship personnel it must be kept in mind that the money wages which they receive are in addition to the subsistence and quarters provided for them aboard ship.

Data collected by the Federal Coordinator of Transportation for June 1933 disclosed considerable variation in the wage rates paid to ship personnel in the several trade routes. Seventy out of every 100 unlicensed crew members on intercoastal common carriers and 59 out of every 100 on Atlantic and Gulf coastwise carriers received $50 per month or



MISSISSIPPI RIVER DIESEL ELECTRIC TOWBOAT

DISCHARGING SUGAR AT GALVESTON

less. In Atlantic coastwise service 42 percent of the unlicensed personnel received $50 per month or less; in Pacific coastwise service, 37 percent; and on the Great Lakes, 39 percent. In barge-line operations on the Mississippi River and tributaries slightly more than half of the vessel employees, other than officers, earned between $26 and $50 per month.

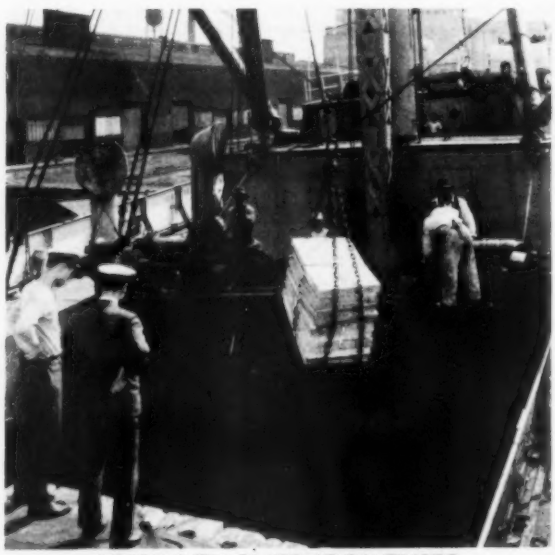
During 1934 and 1935 a tendency toward the equalization of wage rates for seamen in the various offshore trades became apparent. This was in large part the result of the rapid growth of trade unions and the increase in the number of union agreements signed since 1933. The majority of seamen on all coasts now have their wages fixed by collective bargaining.

Agreements with the Marine Engineers Beneficial Association have been signed by many of the major operatives on both coasts. These provide for standardized rates of pay according to the power tonnage of the vessel. Wages of chief engineers range in amount from $250 to $375 per month; first assistant engineers from $165 to $250; second assistant engineers from $140 to $195; and third assistant engineers from $125 to $170.

The agreement of the National Organization of Masters, Mates, and Pilots with operatives on the Pacific coastwise and intercoastal trades provides for the following monthly wage rates: First mates, $165 to $195; second mates, $140 to $170; third mates, $125 to $155.

On the Pacific coast separate agreements exist for seamen in the offshore trade, in steam-schooner operations, and in the Pacific-Alaska trade. On the Atlantic and Gulf coasts a single agreement covers all unlicensed personnel, including those employed on tankers. The latter agreement, like the Pacific offshore agreement, fixes the monthly wage of able seamen at $62.50 and of ordinary seamen at $45. In the Pacific-Alaska trade able seamen receive $75 and ordinary seamen, $60 per month. On Pacific steam schooners able seamen receive $70 per month.

The wage rates of steward's department employees vary much more in the several trades and services than the rates for seamen in the deck and engine departments. The rates of chief stewards on exclusively freight ships range from $95 per month on Pacific steam schooners to $125 on Atlantic or Gulf freighters covered by the Atlantic agreement.



LOADING TIN PLATE AT BALTIMORE

On the Great Lakes, the scales recommended by the Lake Carriers' Association for various classes of ship employees are: Masters, $348 to $606 per month; first mates, $150 to $291; second mates, $126 to $216; chief engineers, $216 to $420; first assistant engineers, $150 to $258; deckhands, $72; wheelsmen, $99; firemen and oilers, $96; coal passers, $67.50; and chief cooks, $135 to $151.50.

In barge and packet operations on the Mississippi River and tributaries the wage rates of the personnel vary according to the size and type of vessel. Monthly rates of towboat employees of the Inland Waterways Corporation range from $300 to $340 for master pilots, $275 to $315 for pilots, $110 to $120 for mates, $220 to $270 for chief engineers, and $203.50 to $220 for first assistant engineers. Deckhands receive $50.25 per month; oilers and firemen, $66; and cooks, $99.

Living Conditions. The Federal Coordinator made no special survey of conditions aboard ship. Nevertheless, evidence in public hearings held and the references to living conditions included in union agreements and arbitration awards indicate that living quarters and food on board many ships are not considered satisfactory by a great number of the unlicensed personnel. Their quarters on ships in the offshore trades are often overcrowded, ill-ventilated, and unsanitary. While food allowances are adequate, there have been numerous complaints that food is often poorly cooked and badly served. Physical conditions aboard ship at times make it difficult to maintain living quarters for seamen comparable to those on land. It is evident, however, that too little attention has been paid by ship operators to the importance of living conditions as a factor in satisfactory labor relations.

LONGSHOREMEN

Hours of Work. The 8-hour day for longshoremen is now standardized on the Atlantic coast. On the Pacific coast the 6-hour day prevails, while on the Mississippi River the regular hours of work vary from 8 to 10 per day. Longshoremen constitute a unique class of workers, not so much because of the character of the work involved in loading and discharging cargo, but because their employment is so highly irregular. In spite of the established standard hours, the actual hours of work for individual longshoremen vary greatly, especially in foreign shipping. However, overtime at higher rates is generally paid for work done outside of specified hours and the problem of overtime has therefore become a question of wage rates rather than of the standard hours.

Wage rates. During the last 2 years the tendency toward wage increases and wage equalization for the different coasts has become decidedly noticeable. In June 1933 straight-time rates ranged from 36 cents an hour in Charleston, S. C., to 75 cents an hour at the Pacific coast ports and 85 cents paid by a few companies in the port of New York. In Philadelphia and Baltimore the maximum straight-time rate per hour was 75 cents, and in Boston, 63 cents. The maximum rate per hour at Houston was 45 cents and at Galveston, 50 cents. Overtime rates were somewhat higher in all the ports, although, as in the case of straight-time rates, there was in each port a large spread between the minimum and maximum wages paid for overtime work.

Recent labor agreements have increased the rates of pay for longshoremen. In October 1934 the agreement between the International Longshoremen's Association and the steamship operators and the contracting stevedores at ports between Portland, Me., and Hampton Roads, Va., provided for an 8-hour day, a 44-hour week, and a straight-time rate of 95 cents an hour for handling general cargo on foreign and intercoastal ships. The rate for overtime was fixed at $1.35 per hour. On the Pacific Coast the Longshoremen's Arbitration Award of October 12, 1934, established 95 cents per hour for straight time and $1.40 for overtime. The regular working time was limited to 5 days and 6 hours per day.*

** The Coordinator's report also traces the history of maritime unions and labor relations. Free copies of the complete study may be obtained from the Interstate Commerce Commission, Washington, D.C.*

DEPARTMENT OF LABOR REGULATIONS FOR WALSH--HEALEY ACT

Under the authority given to the Secretary of Labor by the Walsh-Healey Act, regulations were issued on September 14, 1936 requiring that all provisions of the law pertaining to wages and hours and working conditions be included in each invitation for bids for Government contracts covered by the law. Further regulations will be issued from time to time by the Department of Labor.

The principal provisions of the Walsh-Healey Act, which became law on June 30, 1936, were outlined in an article in the August number of the Labor Information Bulletin, entitled "Labor Standards for Government Contract Work."

Exemptions. In addition to the exemptions outlined in the law, the Secretary of Labor has exempted the following classes of contracts upon evidence that the application of the law would "seriously impair the conduct of Government business":

(a) Contracts for public utility services including electric light and power, water, steam, and gas;

(b) Contracts which are to be performed outside the geographic limits of the United States, its territories, and the District of Columbia, except where such performance requires a shipment from within such geographic limits;

(c) Contracts awarded to complete unfinished work begun by a defaulting contractor prior to the date the Walsh-Healey law went into effect.

Procedure for Exemptions. Requests for exemptions of a contract from the application of one or more of the provisions of the law must be made by the head of the Federal contracting agency or department, and must be accompanied by a statement clearly specifying reasons for the exemption.

All requests for exceptions or exemptions must be transmitted to the Procurement Division of the Treasury Department for submission to the Department of Labor.

Definition of Manufacturer and Regular Dealer. The regulations of the Secretary of Labor define the terms "manufacturer" and "regular dealer", referred to in the Walsh-Healey Act, as follows:

(a) A manufacturer is a person who owns, operates, or maintains a factory or establishment that produces on the premises the materials, supplies, articles, or equipment required under the contract and of the general character described by the specifications.

(b) A regular dealer is a person who owns, operates, or maintains a store, warehouse, or other establishment in which the materials, supplies, articles, or equipment of the general character described by the specifications and required under the contract are bought, kept in stock, and sold to the public in the usual course of business.

Bids received from any bidder who does not fall within one of these definitions will be rejected.

Overtime. Employees engaged in or connected with the manufacture, fabrication, assembling, handling, supervision, or shipment of materials, supplies, articles, or equipment used in the performance of the contract may be employed in excess of 8 hours in any 1 day or in excess of 40 hours in any 1 week, provided such persons shall be paid for any hours in excess of such limits the overtime rate of pay which has been set therefor by the Secretary of Labor.

Until otherwise set by the Secretary of Labor the rate of pay for such overtime shall be one and one-half times the basic hourly rate or piece rate received by the employee.

Records of Employment. Every contractor subject to the provisions of the act shall maintain the following records of employment which shall be available for the inspection and transcription of authorized representatives of the Secretary of Labor:

(a) Name, address, sex, age, and occupation of each employee covered by the contract stipulations.

(b) Date of birth of each such employee under 21 years of age.

(c) Wage and hour records for each such employee including the rate of wages and the amount paid each pay period, the hours worked each day and each week, and the period during which each such employee was engaged on a Government contract with the number of such contract.

Such records shall be kept on file by the employer for at least 1 year after the termination of the contract.

Minimum Wages. This provision of the law will not become operative for any particular industry or group of industries until the Secretary of Labor has determined such wages after having conducted regular hearings at which labor and industry will be given opportunity to testify.

Public Contracts Board. The Secretary of Labor established on October 6, a public contracts board in the Department of Labor to hold hearings and to make findings upon questions arising under the Walsh-Healey law. Pending the passage of a special appropriation act, the board will consist of three officers of the Department of Labor.

The board is charged with the duty of passing upon requests for exceptions and exemptions, establishment of overtime rates, complaints of violations of the act, establishment of prevailing minimum wages, and appeals from the rulings of other agencies.

INDUSTRIAL INJURIES IN MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS

MAX D. KOSSORIS
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

More industrial injuries and injuries of a more serious nature occurred in manufacturing industries in 1934 than in 1933 according to a survey by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of 6,437 identical establishments in 30 manufacturing industries. The injury-frequency rate--that is, the number of workers injured per million hours of work--increased from 19.25 in 1933 to 20.18 in 1934. In other words, there was nearly one more industrial injury for every million hours worked in 1934 than in 1933.

Seventeen of the 30 manufacturing industries covered by the survey experienced more injuries for every million hours of work in 1934 than in 1933. Among the industries with increases in the injury rates were automobiles, boots and shoes, chemicals, glass, iron and steel, leather, paper and pulp, and slaughtering and meat packing. There was practically no change in the frequency rate in the automobile tire and rubber-goods industry. Cotton goods, foundries and machine shops, furniture, logging, planing mills, sawmills, and petroleum refining each reported a lower injury-frequency rate in 1934 than in 1933.

Among the industries which persistently report a high number of injuries per million hours of work are logging, sawmills, fertilizer, brick and tile, slaughtering and meat packing, foundries and machine shops, and paper and pulp. Among the industries which generally have a smaller rate of injuries per million hours worked are carpets and rugs, electrical machinery, apparatus and supplies, automobiles, boots and shoes, and petroleum refining.

TYPE OF INDUSTRIAL INJURIES

Disabilities caused by injuries are generally classified under four major groups--fatal, permanent total, permanent partial, and temporary total. Permanent total disability may involve the loss of both eyes, both arms or legs, etc., and permanently disables

a worker from performing any work. Permanent partial disability involves the loss of an arm, a leg, one or more fingers, etc., but does not permanently disable the injured worker from continuing at some type of work after the healing period has elapsed. A temporary total disability incapacitates a worker only for a period of time but does not cripple him permanently.

By far the largest number of injuries which occur in manufacturing industries are of the temporary total disability type. These injuries accounted for 930 out of every 1,000 accidents in 1933 and 918 out of every 1,000 in 1934. The remaining 70 injuries in 1933 and 82 injuries in 1934 were either fatal, permanent total, or permanent partial. There was one more death for every thousand industrial injuries in 1934 than in 1933. In addition, each industrial accident in 1934 which caused permanent partial disability resulted, on the average, in 914 days of lost time as against 894 days in 1933. In other words, not only were there proportionately more crippling accidents in manufacturing industries in 1934, but they were of a more serious nature.

NUMBER OF INJURIES PER MILLION HOURS WORKED*

INDUSTRY	1934	1933
30 manufacturing industries. .	20.18	19.25
Electrical machinery, etc..	10.21	10.15
Carpets and rugs.	10.42	7.62
Boots and shoes	10.45	9.62
Petroleum refining.	11.49	13.51
Cotton goods.	13.86	14.05
Automobiles	14.45	12.31
Woolen goods	15.53	15.59
Pottery	15.71	13.53
Chemicals	15.81	12.69
Shipbuilding, steel and wood. . . .	16.34	20.31
Steam fittings, etc.	16.80	15.56
Automobile tires and rubber goods .	17.39	17.42
Stamped and enameled ware	17.59	19.31
Machine tools	17.65	19.53
Furniture	19.41	23.91
Iron and steel	19.65	19.49
Hardware	23.03	22.02
Glass	23.80	20.34
Leather	25.26	22.89
Paper and pulp.	26.39	22.61
Agricultural implements	26.58	28.37
Foundries and machine shops	26.88	27.54
Stoves	31.87	30.93
Lumber--planing mills	33.23	39.15
Flour, feed, and grain products . .	34.72	31.46
Slaughtering and meat packing . . .	36.11	28.58
Brick, tile, and terra cotta. . . .	42.76	37.81
Fertilizers	53.82	41.39
Lumber--sawmills.	55.40	62.03
Logging	79.90	103.60

** Generally referred to as injury-frequency rate*

Among the individual industries, the highest relative numbers of injuries resulting in death or complete disability in 1934 were recorded in chemical and petroleum-refining plants. In the chemical industry the number of deaths per 1,000 accidents jumped from 14 in 1933 to 24 in 1934, and in petroleum refining, from 26 to 32. High death rates were also recorded in the fertilizer industry, logging and planing mills, and shipbuilding.

Sharp increases were reported by many industries in the number of permanent partial disabilities in 1934 as compared with 1933. Between 1933 and 1934 the number of permanent partial disabilities out of each 1,000 injuries increased from 50 to 84 in agricultural implements, 54 to 81 in chemicals, 106 to 130 in electrical machinery, 77 to 100 in foundries and machine shops, 28 to 53 in leather, 41 to 74 in logging, 56 to 89 in machine tools, 90 to 132 in petroleum refining, and 57 to 80 in slaughtering and meat packing.

Although no single reason can satisfactorily explain the increase in industrial injuries from 1933 to 1934, it is entirely possible that the most important reason lies in the improvement of business conditions which resulted in increased employment in 1934. It is a recognized fact that employees who have been on the job for a long time develop certain safety habits which arise out of long familiarity with the job. Workers new to the job have not had an opportunity to formulate such habits about the new job, and workers who return to an old job after a lengthy lay-off may have had their safety habits blunted. In addition, many establishments which carried on effective safety work during normal operations, discontinued or curtailed such activities during the depression to save expense.

If this explanation should prove correct, it points to the need for careful and more intensive safety work with new employees and former employees returning after lengthy lay-offs, both to save them from injury, loss of earnings, and possible death or crippling, and to save employers the cost involved in compensation, medical expense, law suits, spoilage of materials, and lowering of morale of their working forces. Safety pays.

Family Consumption of Milk in the United States

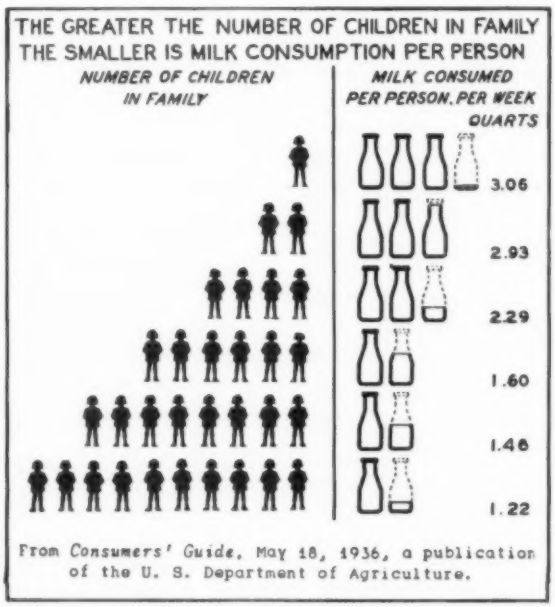
Some milk, according to nutritionists, should be included in the daily diet of every family. Milk contains an abundance of calcium which is especially needed by babies and growing children. It also contains important amounts of essential proteins, fats, carbohydrates, and salts.

In order to obtain information on the consumption of milk by families, the Consumers' Counsel Division of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration, in cooperation with local committees of women, gathered reports from nearly 29,000 families in slum districts, industrial areas, and in middle-class and prosperous sections in 59 cities. The findings of this National Milk Survey are summarized in the following article.

Exactly how much milk a family needs and how much is desirable depends somewhat on the makeup of the family diet. Three quarts of milk per person each week will do if it must, although 5 quarts is far better. The 28,966 families covered by the National Milk Survey consumed on the average about 2½ quarts per person per week. Five hundred and twenty-nine families reported that they bought no milk. More than two-thirds of all families consumed less than the generally estimated minimum weekly requirement of 3 quarts per person.

Out of every 100 families covered by the survey--

		Per person per week
14	consumed	less than 1 quart
25	"	between 1 and 2 quarts
28	"	between 2 and 3 quarts
19	"	between 3 and 4 quarts
9	"	between 4 and 5 quarts
5	"	5 quarts or more.



From *Consumers' Guide*, May 18, 1936, a publication of the U. S. Department of Agriculture.

The lowest average weekly consumption of milk was recorded in the nine cities in the South Atlantic States. The average for these cities was 1.95 quarts per person per week. Per capita consumption was lowest in Charleston, S. C., due largely to the low milk consumption by negro families. It averaged 1.25 quarts per person per week.

An important fact developed from the survey is that, in general, the greater the number of children in the family the smaller was the per capita consumption of milk. Records for a group of 9,728 families, each of which contained two adults, indicate that the consumption of milk ranged from slightly more than 3 quarts per person per week in families with 1 child to about 1.20 quarts per person per week in families with 10 children.

Records of 19,427 families for which incomes were obtained show that families earning less than $10 a week averaged less than half the quantity of milk consumed per person in families earning $50 per week or more. Families averaging $13.20 per week consumed less than 1 quart per person. These families spent over half of their weekly earnings on food. Yet, either because milk was more expensive in comparison with other food items, or because they were unaware of the importance of milk, they consumed only one-third of the minimum estimated as necessary for the maintenance of their health.

In those families where the per capita milk consumption ranged from 1 to 2 quarts per week the weekly income of the family, on the average, was $19.85. Families consuming 3 quarts per person per week received an income of approximately $25 per week.

EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS IN SEPTEMBER 1936

The level of employment in the manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries surveyed each month by the Bureau of Labor Statistics continued to rise in September. Approximately 355,000 workers were returned to jobs during the month. Total weekly pay-roll disbursements to the wage earners employed in these combined manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries were more than $2,500,000 larger than in August.

Comparisons with September 1935 show a net increase in employment of more than 1,000,000 workers over the year's interval. Aggregate weekly pay rolls were nearly $32,000,000 larger this September than in September a year ago.

MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

Factory employment in September reached its highest point since June 1930. Preliminary estimates indicate that nearly 7,600,000 workers were employed in manufacturing establishments in September, as compared with 7,460,000 in the preceding month and 7,015,000 in September a year ago. Factory pay rolls declined slightly in September due to Labor Day and other State and religious holidays. The total weekly wage income of the workers employed in manufacturing industries was $164,800,000 in September, as against $165,100,000 in the previous month and $145,900,000 in September 1935.

The gains in industrial employment over the month interval, August to September 1936, were widespread. Sixty-nine of the 90 manufacturing industries surveyed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics reported more workers on their pay rolls in September than in the preceding month. In 38 of the 69 industries the gains in employment ranged from 3 to as high as 112 percent. Industries whose employment and pay rolls rose seasonally by 10 percent or more in September were--

	PERCENT OF INCREASE	
	EMPLOYMENT	PAY ROLLS
Cottonseed--oil, cake, meal	112.2	110.1
Fertilizers	28.7	38.3
Confectionery	20.0	22.4
Canning and preserving	19.4	10.6
Cash registers	16.1	16.5
Jewelry	11.7	16.1
Lighting equipment	10.3	10.8

Among the 21 industries which reported decreased employment from August to September, the most pronounced and the most important decline (8.5 percent) was registered in automobiles. The drop was due to temporary shutdowns for changes in models.

DURABLE-GOODS EMPLOYMENT

September 1936. A net gain in employment of 32,800 workers was recorded over the month interval, August to September, in the durable-goods industries. The loss of approximately 34,400 workers in transportation equipment, largely automobiles, was more than offset by gains in the other durable-goods groups. Employment advanced by 25,500 in machinery manufacturing, 15,500 in iron and steel, 11,600 in nonferrous metals, 11,100 in lumber, 2,400 in railroad repair shops, and 1,100 in stone, clay, and glass.

Compared with September 1935. About 410,000 more workers were employed in manufacturing durable goods this September than in September 1935. All groups reported more workers on their pay rolls. The gains in employment over the 12-month period amounted to--

114,200 in machinery manufacturing
112,600 in iron and steel
60,300 in transportation equipment
40,500 in railroad repair shops
34,000 in lumber
27,100 in nonferrous metals
22,400 in stone, clay, and glass

DURABLE-GOODS PAY ROLLS

September 1936. Weekly wage payments to workers engaged in manufacturing durable goods

ESTIMATED EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

SEPTEMBER 1936, AUGUST 1936, and SEPTEMBER 1935

INDUSTRY	NUMBER OF WORKERS EMPLOYED			AMOUNT OF WEEKLY PAY ROLL		
	SEPTEMBER 1936*	AUGUST 1936‡	SEPTEMBER 1935	SEPTEMBER 1936*	AUGUST 1936‡	SEPTEMBER 1935
All industries	7,592,500	7,461,500	7,014,500	$164,764,000	$165,099,000	$145,868,000
Durable-goods groups:	*3,498,600*	*3,465,800*	*3,087,500*	*83,277,000*	*83,300,000*	*67,941,000*
Iron and steel	754,300	738,800	641,700	19,998,000	19,899,000	15,461,000
Machinery	914,100	888,600	799,900	21,148,000	21,006,000	17,789,000
Transportation equipment	488,000	522,400	427,700	13,220,000	14,167,000	10,328,000
Railroad repair shops	294,100	291,700	253,600	8,246,000	8,097,000	6,659,000
Nonferrous metals	272,700	261,100	245,600	6,127,000	5,797,000	5,196,000
Lumber	557,500	546,400	523,500	9,984,000	9,762,000	8,761,000
Stone, clay, and glass	217,900	216,800	195,500	4,554,000	4,572,000	3,747,000
Nondurable-goods groups:	*4,093,900*	*3,995,700*	*3,927,000*	*81,487,000*	*81,799,000*	*77,927,000*
Textiles	1,629,400	1,605,000	1,562,600	26,164,000	27,241,000	26,798,000
Leather	289,200	290,200	287,300	5,428,000	5,784,000	5,372,000
Foods	813,200	774,300	789,800	17,171,000	16,832,000	16,082,000
Tobacco	83,200	82,300	81,500	1,144,000	1,146,000	1,099,000
Paper and printing	540,700	529,000	516,800	13,839,000	13,468,000	12,814,000
Chemicals	387,900	370,900	368,600	9,039,000	8,755,000	8,236,000
Rubber	121,900	118,300	108,900	2,982,000	2,913,000	2,386,000
Unclassified	228,400	225,700	211,500	5,720,000	5,660,000	5,140,000

* *Preliminary* ‡ *Revised*

totaled about $23,000 less than in August. Transportation equipment reported a loss of $947,000, and stone, clay, and glass, of $18,000. Weekly pay rolls increased by $330,000 in nonferrous metals, $222,000 in lumber, $149,000 in railroad repair shops, $142,000 in machinery manufacturing, and $99,000 in iron and steel.

Compared with September 1935. The total weekly wage income of workers in durable-goods industries was approximately $15,340,000 larger this September than in the corresponding month of 1935. Over the 12-month period weekly wage payments to workers advanced in all durable-goods groups. The increases ranged in amounts from $807,000 in stone, clay, and glass and $931,000 in nonferrous metals to $3,360,000 in machinery manufacturing and $4,540,000 in iron and steel.

NONDURABLE-GOODS EMPLOYMENT

September 1936. Approximately 98,000 more workers had jobs in nondurable-goods industries in September than in the previous month. The largest gains in employment over the month interval occurred in foodstuffs (38,900), textiles (24,400), and chemicals (17,000). Smaller gains were recorded in paper and printing, rubber, tobacco, and the unclassified industries. The leather group reported a decline of 1,000 workers.

Compared with September 1935. Over the year's interval, September 1935 to September 1936, employment in the nondurable-goods industries advanced by approximately 167,000. All nondurable-goods groups employed more workers in September of this year. The gains

over the period amounted to 66,800 in textiles, 23,900 in paper and printing, 23,400 in foodstuffs, 19,300 in chemicals, 13,000 in rubber, 1,900 in leather, 1,700 in tobacco, and 16,900 in the unclassified group.

NONDURABLE-GOODS PAY ROLLS

September 1936. The weekly wage income of workers employed in the textile group of industries in September was $1,077,000 smaller than in August. Weekly wage payments also declined by $356,000 in leather and $2,000 in tobacco. They increased by $371,000 in paper and printing, $339,000 in foodstuffs, $284,000 in chemicals, $69,000 in rubber, and $60,000 in the unclassified group. The net result was a decline in weekly pay rolls of $312,000 for all industries manufacturing nondurable goods.

Compared with September 1935. Total weekly wage disbursements to workers in the nondurable-goods industries were $3,560,000 larger this September than in September of last year. Aside from a decline of $634,000 in the weekly wage income of textile workers, payments to workers in the remaining nondurable-goods industries were higher this September. The increases amounted to $1,089,000 in foodstuffs, $1,025,000 in paper and printing, $803,000 in chemicals, $596,000 in rubber, $56,000 in leather, $45,000 in tobacco, and $580,000 in the unclassified industries.

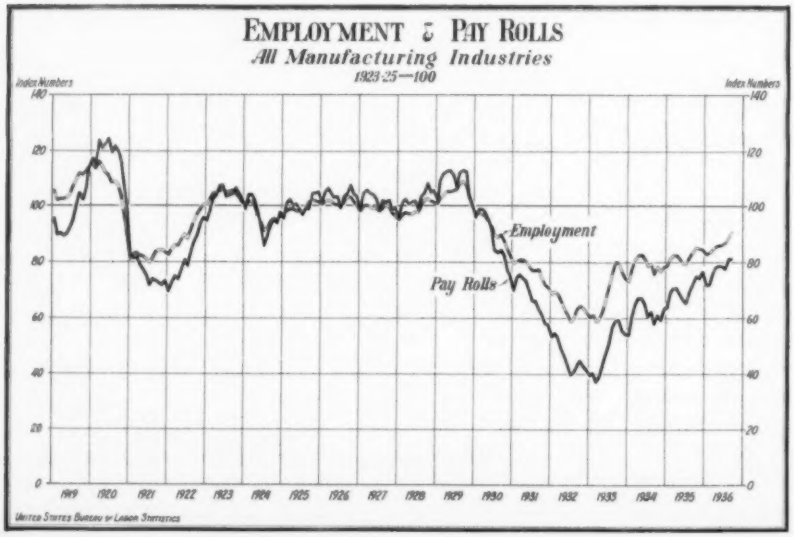
TREND OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

Factory employment in September was higher than for any month since June 1930. It was 1.8 percent higher than in August and more than 8 percent higher than in September 1935. The Bureau of Labor Statistics preliminary index of employment was 90.6 in September, compared with 89 in August, 83.7 in September a year ago, 92.9 in June 1930, and 100 for the 3-year period 1923 to 1925.

More workers were employed in September in the durable-goods group of industries than at any time since September 1930. Employment in these combined industries in September advanced nearly 1 percent over August, and about 13 percent over September 1935.

In nondurable-goods manufacturing employment in September exceeded the average for the 3 years, 1923-25. It was slightly lower than the average for 1928. For every 1,000 workers employed in manufacturing nondurable goods in 1923-25, 1,012 workers were so engaged in September as against 988 in the previous month, 971 in September 1935, and 1,018 in 1928.

With the exception of the previous month the September pay-roll index for all manufacturing industries was higher than at any time since October 1930. It was 81.0 in September, as against 81.1 in August, 71.7 in September 1935, and 82.2 in October 1930, compared with 100 as the average for 1923-25.


EMPLOYMENT & PAY ROLLS
All Manufacturing Industries
1923-25=100
Index Numbers
Employment
Pay Rolls
1919 1920 1921 1922 1923 1924 1925 1926 1927 1928 1929 1930 1931 1932 1933 1934 1935 1936
United States Bureau of Labor Statistics

HOURS OF WORK AND EARNINGS IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

Average weekly hours of work and average hourly and weekly earnings of wage earners in manufacturing industries declined slightly over the month interval, August to September 1936. Factory employment averaged 38.5 hours per week and hourly earnings, 57 cents in September. The workers employed earned on the average $22.20 per week in September, which was about 30 cents less per week than in August, but 90 cents more than in September 1935.

Weekly earnings:

$28.25 in automobiles
27.00 in blast furnaces and rolling mills
24.95 in foundries and machine shops
19.75 in sawmills
19.00 in brick manufacturing

Average weekly hours of work and average hourly and weekly earnings in the five selected nondurable-goods industries in September 1936 were--

HOURS OF WORK AND EARNINGS IN INDUSTRIES MANUFACTURING FOOD PRODUCTS

INDUSTRY	HOURS OF WORK			HOURLY EARNINGS			WEEKLY EARNINGS		
	SEPTEMBER 1936	INCREASE OR DECREASE		SEPTEMBER 1936	INCREASE OR DECREASE		SEPTEMBER 1936	INCREASE OR DECREASE	
		AUGUST 1936 TO SEPT. 1936	SEPT. 1935 TO SEPT. 1936		AUGUST 1936 TO SEPT. 1936	SEPT. 1935 TO SEPT. 1936		AUGUST 1936 TO SEPT. 1936	SEPT. 1935 TO SEPT. 1936
		Percent	*Percent*	*Cents*	*Percent*	*Percent*		*Percent*	*Percent*
Baking	42.0	+ 0.3	+ 5.3	54.5	- 0.1	+ 1.3	$23.10	+ 0.5	+ 3.4
Beverages	41.0	- 2.5	+ 2.2	78.5	+ 0.2	+ 2.8	31.90	- 2.0	+ 5.5
Butter	48.0	***	***	44.0	***	***	21.55	+ 0.3	+ 2.4
Canning and preserving	38.0	- 2.8	+ 3.4	37.0	- 4.4	+ 3.4	13.65	- 7.4	+ 8.1
Confectionery	42.5	+10.8	- 1.3	40.0	- 6.9	- 4.1	16.75	+ 2.8	- 5.7
Flour	44.0	- 4.3	- 0.4	53.5	- 0.4	- 2.2	23.25	- 4.7	- 2.2
Ice cream	47.0	- 3.0	+ 0.6	56.5	+ 2.4	+ 1.5	26.45	- 0.1	+ 3.5
Sugar, beet	46.0	+13.9	- 4.1	51.5	- 3.5	+ 4.1	23.10	+ 8.8	- 0.4
Sugar refining, cane	37.5	+ 2.1	- 3.7	58.5	- 1.5	+ 1.1	21.95	- 0.9	- 2.8

*** *Data not available.*

In the five selected durable-goods industries the average weekly hours and average hourly and weekly earnings in September 1936 were--

Weekly hours:

42.5 in brick manufacturing
42.5 in sawmills
41.5 in foundries and machine shops
41.0 in blast furnaces and rolling mills
37.0 in automobiles

Hourly earnings (in cents):

76.5 in automobiles
66.0 in blast furnaces and rolling mills
60.0 in foundries and machine shops
47.0 in sawmills
45.0 in brick manufacturing

Weekly hours:

41.5 in slaughtering and meat packing
40.0 in paper and pulp
37.0 in cotton-goods manufacturing
35.0 in tires and inner tubes
35.0 in petroleum refining

Hourly earnings (in cents):

90.5 in tires and inner tubes
84.0 in petroleum refining
56.5 in slaughtering and meat packing
54.5 in paper and pulp
36.5 in cotton-goods manufacturing

Weekly earnings:

$31.80 in tires and inner tubes
29.40 in petroleum refining
23.45 in slaughtering and meat packing
21.75 in paper and pulp
13.50 in cotton-goods manufacturing

Over the year interval, September 1935 to September 1936, the average weekly hours of work increased in 9 of the 10 selected durable- and nondurable-goods industries. Increases of more than 10 percent occurred in the average weekly working time of wage earners employed in blast furnaces and rolling mills, brick manufacturing, automobiles, and tires and tubes.

Workers employed in slaughtering and meat packing earned on the average about the same weekly wage this September as in September of last year. The average weekly wage income of the workers employed in the remaining nine selected industries advanced over the year interval. The gains ranged in amounts from 40 cents in cotton-goods manufacturing to $4.40 in tires and inner tubes.

EMPLOYMENT, PAY ROLLS, WAGES, AND HOURS IN SELECTED NONMANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

INDUSTRY	SEPTEMBER 1936*	INCREASE OR DECREASE: AUGUST 1936 TO SEPT. 1936	INCREASE OR DECREASE: SEPT. 1935 TO SEPT. 1936
RETAIL TRADE		*Percent*	*Percent*
Employment.....	3,400,300	+ 5.4	+ 6.1
Weekly pay roll....	$61,210,000	+ 3.6	+ 6.7
Weekly hours.....	43.0	- 0.8	+ 0.9
Hourly earnings....	$0.52	- 1.3	+ 0.4
Weekly earnings....	$21.00	- 1.7	+ 0.7
WHOLESALE TRADE			
Employment.....	1,412,400	+ 2.0	+ 5.2
Weekly pay roll....	$40,868,000	+ 1.3	+ 5.0
Weekly hours.....	42.5	*No change*	+ 0.5
Hourly earnings....	$0.67	- 0.8	- 1.1
Weekly earnings....	$28.75	- 0.7	- 0.2
STEAM RAILROADS			
Employment.....	1,089,600	+ 1.0	+ 9.3
Weekly pay roll....	$34,514,000	- 0.5	+ 9.3
Weekly earnings....	$31.70	- 1.7	- 0.1
BITUMINOUS COAL			
Employment.....	358,700	+ 1.7	+ 1.4
Weekly pay roll....	$7,848,000	+ 8.8	+ 18.1
Weekly hours.....	29.0	+ 7.2	+ 6.7
Hourly earnings.....	$0.80	- 0.7	+ 9.5
Weekly earnings....	$23.05	+ 6.8	+ 16.5
TELEPHONE & TELEGRAPH			
Employment.....	395,000	+ 0.2	+ 4.6
Weekly pay roll....	$11,394,000	- 2.9	+ 6.8
Weekly hours.....	37.5	- 6.2	- 1.6
Hourly earnings....	$0.79	+ 3.1	+ 4.1
Weekly earnings....	$28.60	- 3.1	+ 2.1

INDUSTRY	SEPTEMBER 1936*	INCREASE OR DECREASE: AUGUST 1936 TO SEPT. 1936	INCREASE OR DECREASE: SEPT. 1935 TO SEPT. 1936
HOTELS		*Percent*	*Percent*
Employment.....	245,000	+ 1.2	+ 3.8
Weekly pay roll....	$3,337,000	+ 2.1	+ 7.0
Weekly hours.....	48.0	- 0.1	+ 0.6
Hourly earnings....	$0.29	+ 1.5	+ 2.8
Weekly earnings....	$13.80	+ 1.0	+ 3.1
POWER and LIGHT			
Employment.....	299,200	+ 0.5	+ 7.6
Weekly pay roll....	$8,688,000	+ 1.9	+ 8.3
Weekly hours.....	39.5	+ 0.2	+ 2.3
Hourly earnings....	$0.80	+ 1.5	- 1.3
Weekly earnings....	$31.60	+ 1.4	+ 0.6
ELECTRIC RAILROADS			
Employment.....	194,400	+ 0.6	+ 2.5
Weekly pay roll....	$5,679,000	- 0.1	+ 3.8
Weekly earnings....	$29.45	- 0.7	+ 1.3
LAUNDRIES			
Employment.....	208,900	*No change*	+ 8.0
Weekly pay roll....	$3,371,000	- 0.1	+ 12.8
Weekly hours.....	42.5	- 1.3	+ 4.0
Hourly earnings....	$0.38	+ 0.8	+ 0.4
Weekly earnings....	$16.00	- 0.1	+ 4.5
DYEING & CLEANING			
Employment.....	51,200	+ 3.8	+ 5.6
Weekly pay roll....	$965,000	+ 4.5	+ 4.8
Weekly hours.....	43.0	- 0.7	- 0.3
Hourly earnings....	$0.45	+ 2.4	+ 1.3
Weekly earnings....	$18.80	+ 0.7	- 0.9

* *Preliminary*

BUSINESS AND ECONOMIC CONDITIONS IN SEPTEMBER 1936

AGRICULTURE

Farm Income. Cash income from the sale of farm products in September was estimated by the Department of Agriculture at $754,000,000 as against $635,000,000 in August, and $648,000,000 in September 1935. Rental and benefit payments to farmers amounted to about $5,000,000 in September, $8,000,000 in the preceding month, and $57,000,000 in September of last year.

For the first 9 months total cash income of farmers including government payments was $5,434,000,000, as against $4,830,000,000 in 1935. These amounts include government rental and benefit payments totaling $210,000,000 in 1936 and $407,000,000 in 1935.

Farm Wages. The general level of farm wage rates rose from July 1 to October 1, 1936 in all sections of the country except in areas where the drought reduced the demand for labor to harvest fall crops. For the country as a whole farm hands receiving board averaged $22.50 per month on October 1, 1936, compared with $22.05 on July 1 of this year, $20.55 on October 1, 1935, and $20.40 for the 5-year period 1910 to 1914. Without board, monthly earnings of farm workers were, on the average, $32.85 on October 1, 1936, $32.20 on July 1 of this year, $30.40 on October 1 of last year, and $29.10 for the 5 years, 1910 to 1914.

INDUSTRY AND TRADE

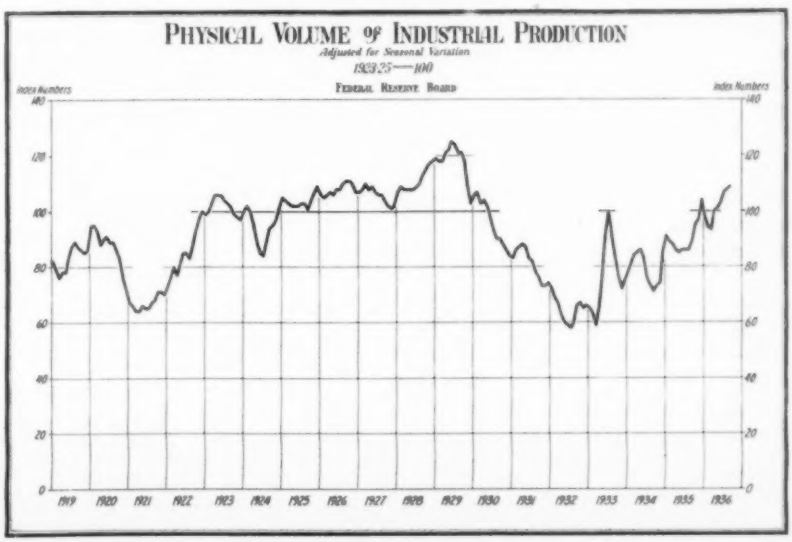
The volume of industrial production in September was larger than for any month since November 1929. It was about 20 percent larger than in September a year ago. The Federal Reserve Board's adjusted index for measuring the output of factories and mines was 109 in September, as against the revised estimate of 108 for the previous month, 91 for September 1935, 110 for November 1929, and 100 for the 3-year period 1923 to 1925.

Production of iron and steel, crude petroleum, textiles, food products, and leather and shoes in September continued at about the same rate as the previous month.

Output increased in lumber, cement, meat packing, and tobacco. More anthracite and bituminous coal was mined in September than in August.

Department and variety stores reported increases in sales during September, as did mail-order houses serving rural areas.

Freight-car loadings advanced due primarily to larger shipments of coal, ore, and miscellaneous freight.



BUSINESS AND INDUSTRIAL BAROMETERS

Automobiles. About one-half as many passenger cars and trucks were assembled in September, as in August. Total production is estimated at 135,100 units in September, as against 271,300 in August, and 87,500 in September of last year.

Bituminous Coal. Output of bituminous coal in September amounted to approximately 36,800,000 tons, compared with 33,240,000 tons in August and slightly more than 25,000,000 tons in September a year ago.

Building Permits. The value of building construction for which permits were issued in September declined about 12 percent, compared with the previous month. Data from 1,455 cities of over 2,500 population indicate that permits totaling $126,500,000 were issued in September, as against $144,600,000 in August. The value of building construction permits issued this September was about 54 percent greater than in September 1935.

Electric Power. Output of electric power in September totaled 9,703 million kilowatt hours. This was about 97 million kilowatt hours less than in the preceding month, but nearly 1,500 million kilowatt hours more than in September a year ago.

Railroad Freight Car Loadings. Class I railroads averaged 765,300 freight cars loaded per week in September, as against 740,200 cars per week in August and 657,100 cars per week in September of last year.

Retail Trade. The total mail and store sales of two large mail-order houses amounted to approximately $81,000,000 in September. This compares with sales of $66,300,000 in August and of $59,500,000 in September 1935.

Steel. Production of steel ingots in September totaled 4,120,000 tons -- about 75,000 tons less than in the previous month, but 1,295,000 tons more than in the same month last year.

FEDERAL GOVERNMENT EMPLOYMENT AND RELIEF IN SEPTEMBER 1936

The Works Program. Employment on projects financed by The Works Program increased from about 2,915,000 persons in August to 3,000,000 in September. Total wage payments to these workers amounted to $147,430,000 in August, as against $149,970,000 in September.

Slightly more than one million workers were employed on highway, street, and road projects. The September pay roll for this group aggregated nearly $47,000,000. Other major projects provided employment for--

291,000 in sewing, canning, and gardening
241,000 in recreational facilities
240,000 in professional, technical, and clerical work
212,000 in public building operations
196,000 in reclamation and conservation
195,000 in publicly owned and operated utilities
154,000 in National Youth Administration

Public Works. Projects financed by the P.W.A. provided employment at the site of construction for 323,200 persons in September. This was a decline of about 19,600 workers, compared with August. Total pay-roll disbursements amounted to $24,760,000 in September, as against $25,920,000 in August.

Emergency Conservation Work. The number of enrolled workers, camp supervisors, and instructors in Civilian Conservation Camps declined sharply from 383,000 in August to 320,000 in September. Their monthly pay roll decreased from $17,850,000 in August to $16,370,000 in September.

Emergency Relief. Preliminary reports received by the Federal Emergency Relief Administration from 101 cities indicate that about 667,200 families and single persons received $18,680,000 in emergency relief from public funds in September. In the previous month the same cities reported 691,500 families and single persons receiving approximately $18,380,000.

WHAT HAPPENED TO PRICES IN SEPTEMBER 1936

Wholesale Prices. The general level of wholesale commodity prices in September remained unchanged from the previous month. It was 1.1 percent higher than in September 1935. The Bureau of Labor Statistics index of wholesale commodity prices was 81.6 in August and September of this year, 80.7 in September 1935, and 100 for 1926. In other words, the same commodities which cost at wholesale $100 in 1926 could be purchased for $81.60 in August and September 1936, and $80.70 in September 1935.

INDEX OF WHOLESALE PRICES

ITEM	1926	SEPTEMBER 1936	SEPTEMBER 1935	INCREASE (+) OR DECREASE (-) SEPTEMBER 1935 TO SEPTEMBER 1936
	Index	*Index*	*Index*	*Percent*
All commodities	100	81.6	80.7	+ 1.1
Farm products	100	84.0	79.5	+ 5.7
Raw materials	100	81.8	77.3	+ 5.8
Semimanufactured articles	100	75.9	74.4	+ 2.0
Finished products	100	82.3	83.1	- 1.0

Retail Food Prices. Average retail food prices increased slightly in September. They were about 5 percent higher than in September a year ago. The Bureau of Labor Statistics index of the average retail price of 84 food products sold in 51 cities in the United States was 77.5 in September 1936, 77.2 in August 1936, 73.9 in September 1935, and 100 in 1926. This means that for every dollar's worth of foodstuffs purchased in the country's retail markets in 1926 consumers paid on the average 77.5 cents in September, 77.2 cents in the preceding month, and 73.9 cents in September a year ago.

AVERAGE RETAIL FOOD PRICES FOR THE COUNTRY AS A WHOLE

ITEM	RETAIL PRICE		INCREASE (+) OR DECREASE (-) SEPTEMBER 1935 TO SEPTEMBER 1936	
	SEPTEMBER 1936	SEPTEMBER 1935		
	Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Percent*
Bread, pound	8.2	8.3	- 0.1	- 1.1
Butter, pound	42.4	32.8	+ 9.6	+ 29.3
Milk, quart	12.5	11.5	+ 1.0	+ 8.8
Eggs, dozen	40.9	41.8	- 0.9	- 2.3
Potatoes, pound	3.2	1.7	+ 1.5	+ 94.4
Lard, pound	16.5	22.2	- 5.7	- 25.6
Pork chops, pound	39.5	39.7	- 0.2	- 0.6
Round steak, pound	35.4	37.9	- 2.5	- 6.5
Sugar, pound	5.6	5.8	- 0.2	- 3.2
Coffee, pound	24.3	24.7	- 0.4	- 1.6

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